Succinct Dictionary Matching With No Slowdown

Djamal Belazzougui

LIAFA, Univ. Paris Diderot - Paris 7, 75205 Paris Cedex 13, France dbelaz@liafa.jussieu.fr

February 14, 2010

Abstract

The problem of dictionary matching is a classical problem in string matching: given a set S of d strings of total length n characters over an (not necessarily constant) alphabet of size σ, build a data structure so that we can match in a any text T all occurrences of strings belonging to S. The classical solution for this problem is the Aho-Corasick automaton which finds all *occ* occurrences in a text T in time $O(|T| + occ)$ using a data structure that occupies $O(m \log m)$ bits of space where $m \leq n + 1$ is the number of states in the automaton. In this paper we show that the Aho-Corasick automaton can be represented in just $m(\log \sigma + O(1)) + O(d \log(n/d))$ bits of space while still maintaining the ability to answer to queries in $O(|T| + occ)$ time. To the best of our knowledge, the currently fastest succinct data structure for the dictionary matching problem uses space $O(n \log \sigma)$ while answering queries in $O(|T| \log \log n + occ)$ time. In this paper we also show how the space occupancy can be reduced to $m(H_0 + O(1)) + O(d \log(n/d))$ where H_0 is the empirical entropy of the characters appearing in the trie representation of the set S, provided that $\sigma < m^\varepsilon$ for any constant $0 < \varepsilon < 1$. The query time remains unchanged.

1 introduction

A recent trend in text pattern matching algorithms has been to succinctly encode data structures so that they occupy no more space than the data they are built on, without a too significant sacrifice in their query time. The most prominent example being the data structures used for indexing texts for substring matching queries [15, 8, 9].

In this paper we are interested in the succinct encoding of data structures for the dictionary matching problem, which consists in the construction of a data structure on a set S of d strings (a dictionary) of total length n over an alphabet of size σ (wlog we assume that $\sigma \leq n$) so that we can answer to queries of

1

Algorithm	Space usage (in bits)	Query time
HLSTV1	$O(n \log \sigma)$	$O(|T| \log \log(n) + occ)$
HLSTV2	$n \log \sigma (1 + o(1)) + O(d \log(n))$	$O(|T|(\log^{\varepsilon}(n) + \log(d)) + occ)$
TWLY	$n \log \sigma (2 + o(1)) + O(d \log(n))$	$O(|T|(\log(d) + \log \sigma) + occ)$
Ours	$n(\log \sigma + 3.443 + o(1)) + O(d \log(n/d))$	$O(|T| + occ)$

Table 1: Comparison of dictionary matching succinct indexes

the kind: find in a text T all occurrences of strings belonging to S if any. The dictionary matching problem has numerous applications including computer security (virus detection software, intrusion detection systems), genetics and others. The classical solution to this problem is the Aho-Corasick automaton [1], which uses space $O(m \log m)$ bits (where m is the number of states in the automaton which in the worst case equals $n + 1$) and answers queries in time $O(|T| + occ)$ (where occ is number of occurrences) if hashing techniques are used, or $O(|T| \log \sigma + occ)$ if only binary search is permitted. The main result of our paper is that the Aho-corasick automaton can be represented in just $m(\log \sigma + 3.443 + o(1)) + d(3 \log(n/d) + O(1))$ bits of space while still maintaining the same $O(|T| + occ)$ query time. As a corollary of the main result, we also show a compressed representation suitable for alphabets of size $\sigma < m^{\varepsilon}$ for any constant $0 < \varepsilon < 1$. This compressed representation uses $m(H_0 + 3.443 + o(1)) + O(d \log(n/d))$ bits of space where H_0 is the empirical entropy of the characters appearing in the trie representation of the set S. The query time of the compressed representation is also $O(|T| + occ)$.

The problem of succinct encoding for dictionary matching has already been explored in [2, 10, 16, 11]. The results in [2] and [11] only deal with the dynamic case which is not treated in this paper. The best results for the static case we have found in the literature are the two results from [10] and the result from [16]. A comparison of the results from [10, 16] with our main result is summarized in table 1. In this table, the two results from [10] are denoted by HLSTV1 and HLSTV2 and the result of [16] is denoted by TWLY. For comparison purpose, we have replaced m with n in the space and time bounds of our data structure.

Our results assume a word RAM model, in which usual operations including multiplications, divisions and shifts are all supported in constant time. We assume that the computer word is of size $\Omega(\log n)$, where n is the total size of the string dictionary on which we build our data structures. Without loss of generality we assume that n is a power of two. All logarithms are intended as base 2 logarithms. We assume that the strings are drawn from an alphabet of size σ, where σ is not necessarily constant. That is, σ could be as large as n.

The paper is organized as follows: in section 2, we present the main tools that will be used in our construction. In section 3 we present our main result. In section 4, we give a compressed variant of the data structure. Finally some concluding remarks are given in section 5.

2 Basic components

In this paper, we only need to use three basic data structures from the literature of succinct data structures.

2.1 Compressed integer arrays

We will use the following result about compression of integer arrays:

Lemma 1 Given an array A of n integers such that $\sum_{0 \leq i < n} A[i] = U$. We can produce a compressed representation that uses $n(\lceil \log(U/n) \rceil + 2)$ bits of space such that any element of the array A can be reproduced in constant time.

This result was first described in [9] based on Elias-Fano coding by Elias [5] and Fano [6] combined with succinct bitvectors [3] which support constant time queries.

2.2 Succinctly encoded ordinal trees

In the result of [13] a tree of n nodes of arbitrary degrees where the nodes are ordered in depth first order can be represented in $n(2 + o(1))$ bits of space so that basic navigation on the tree can be done in constant time. In this work we will only need a single primitive: given a node x of preorder i (the preorder of a node is the number attributed to the node in a DFS lexicographic traversal of the tree), return the preorder j of the parent of x.
The following lemma summarizes the result which will be used later in our construction:

Lemma 2 A tree with n nodes of arbitrary degrees can be represented in $n(2 + o(1))$, so that the preorder of the parent of a node of given preorder can be computed in constant time.

In this paper we also use the compressed tree representation presented in [12] which permits to use much less space than $2n + o(n)$ bits in the case where tree nodes degrees distribution is skewed (e.g. the tree has much more leaves than internal nodes).

Lemma 3 A tree with n nodes of arbitrary degrees can be represented in $n(H^* + o(1))$, where H^* is the entropy of the degree distribution of the tree, so that the preorder of the parent of a node of given preorder can be computed in constant time.

2.3 Succinct indexable dictionary

In the paper by Raman, Raman and Rao [14] the following result is proved :

Lemma 4 a dictionary on a set Γ of m integer keys from a universe of size U can be built in time $O(m)$ and uses $B(m, U) + o(m)$ bits of space, where $B = \log \binom{U}{m}$, so that the following two operations can be supported in constant time:

- $select(i)$: return the key of rank i in lexicographic order (natural order of integers).

- $rank(k)$: return the rank of key k in lexicographic order if $k \in \Gamma$. Otherwise return -1.

The term $B = \log \binom{U}{m}$ is the information theoretic lower bound on the number of bits needed to encode all possible subsets of size n of a universe of size U (we have $\binom{U}{m}$ different subsets and so we need $\log \binom{U}{m}$ to encode them). The term B can be upper bounded in the worst case by $m(\log(e) + \log(U/m))$. The space usage of the dictionary can be simplified as $B(m, U) + o(m) \leq m(\log(e) + \log(U/m) + o(1)) \leq m(\log(U/m) + 1.443 + o(1))$.

3 The data structure

Given a set of strings S, our Aho-Corasick automaton has $|P|$ states where P is the set of prefixes of strings in S. Each state of the automaton uniquely corresponds to one of the elements of P. Our Aho-Corasick representation has three kinds of transitions: $next, failure$ and $report$ transitions (the reader can refer to appendix A for a more detailed description of the transitions of the Aho-Corasick automaton). Our new data structure is very simple. We essentially use two succinctly encoded dictionaries, two succinctly encoded ordinal trees and one Elias-Fano encoded array. The representation we use is implicit in the sense that the strings of the dictionary are not stored at all. A query will output the occurences as triplets of the form $(occ\_start\_pos, occ\_end\_pos, string\_id)$ where $string\_id$ is the identifier of a matched string from S and occ_start_pos (occ_end_pos) is the starting (ending) position of the occurrence in the text.

The central idea is to represent each state corresponding to a prefix $p \in P$, by a unique number $rank_P(p) \in [0, m - 1]$ which represents the rank of p in P in suffix-lexicographic order (the suffix-lexicographic order is similar to lexicographic order except that the strings are compared in right-to-left order instead of left-to-right order). Then it is easy to see that the *failure* transitions form a tree rooted at state 0 (which we call a failure tree) and a DFS traversal of the tree will enumerate the states in increasing order. Similarly, the set of *report* transitions represent a forest of trees, which can be transformed into a tree rooted at state 0 (which call a report tree) by attaching all the roots of the forest as children of state 0. Then similarly a DFS traversal of the report tree will also enumerate the states of the automaton in order. Then computing a *failure* (*report*) transition for a given state amounts to finding the parent of the state in the failure (report) tree. It turns out that the succinct tree representations (lemma 2 and lemma 3) do support parent queries on DFS numbered trees in constant time.

3.1   State representation

We now describe the state representation and the correspondence between states and strings. The states of our Aho-Corasick automaton representation are defined in the following way:

Definition 1 Let P be the set of all prefixes of the strings in S, and let $m = |P|$. We define the function *state* as a function from P into the interval $[0, m-1]$ where $state(p)$ is the rank of the string p in P according to the suffix-lexicographic order(we count the number of elements of P which are smaller than p in the suffix lexicographic order).

The suffix-lexicographic order is defined in the same way as standard lexicographic order except that the characters of the strings are compared in right-to-left order instead of left-to-right order. That is the strings of P are first sorted according to their last character and then ties are broken according to their next-to-last character, etc.... In order to distinguish final states from the other states, we simply note that we have exactly d terminal states corresponding to the d elements of S. As stated in the definition, each of the m states is uniquely identified by a number in range $[0, m-1]$. Therefore in order to distinguish terminal from non-terminal states, we use a succinct indexable dictionary, in which we store the d numbers corresponding to the d terminal states. As those d numbers all belong to the range $[0, m-1]$, the total space occupation of our dictionary is $d(\log(m/d) + 1.443 + o(1))$ bits. In the following, we denote this dictionary as the state dictionary.

3.2   Representation of next transitions

We now describe how *next* transitions are represented. First, we note that a transition goes always from a state corresponding to a prefix p where $p \in P$ to a state corresponding to a prefix pc for some character c such that $pc \in P$. Therefore in order to encode the transition labeled with character c and which goes from the state corresponding to the string p (if such transition exists), we need to encode two informations: whether there exists a state corresponding to the prefix pc and the number corresponding to that state if it exists. In other words, given $state(p)$ and a character c, we need to know whether there exists a state corresponding to pc in which case, we would wish to get the number $state(pc)$.

The transition from $state(p)$ to $state(pc)$ can be done in a very simple way using a succinct indexable dictionary (lemma 4) which we call the transition dictionary. For that we notice that $state(p) \in [0, m-1]$. For each non empty string $p_i = p'_i c_i$ where $p_i \in P$, we store in the transition dictionary, the pair $pair(p_i) = (c_i, state(p'_i))$ as the concatenation of the bit representation of c_i followed by the bit representation of $state(p'_i)$. That is we store a total of $m-1$ pairs which correspond to the $m-1$ non empty strings in P. Notice that the pairs are from a universe of size σm. Notice also that the pairs are first ordered according the characters c_i and then by $state(p'_i)$ (in the C language notation

a pair is an integer computed as $pair(p_i) = (c_i << \log m) + state(p_i')$. Now the following facts are easy to observe:

1. Space occupation of the transition dictionary is $m(\log((\sigma \cdot m)/m) + 1.443 + o(1)) = m(\log \sigma + 1.443 + o(1))$.

2. The rank of the pairs stored in the succinct dictionary reflects the rank of the elements of P in suffix-lexicographic order. This is easy to see as we are sorting pairs corresponding to non empty strings, first by their last characters before sorting them by the rank of their prefix excluding their last character. Therefore we have $rank(pair(p_i)) = state(p_i) + 1$, where $rank$ function is applied on the transition dictionary.

3. A pair $(c_i, state(p_i'))$ exists in the transition dictionary if and only if we have a transition from the state corresponding to p_i' to the state corresponding to $p_i'c_i$ labeled with the c_i.

From the last two observations we can see that a transition from a state $state(p)$ for a character c can be executed in the following way: first compute the pair $(c, state(p))$. Then query the transition dictionary using the function $rank((c, state(p)))$. If that function returns -1, we can deduce that there is no transition from $state(p)$ labeled with character c. Otherwise we will have $state(pc) = rank((c, state(p))) + 1$. In conclusion we have the following lemma:

Lemma 5 The *next* transitions of an Aho-corasick automaton whose states are defined according to definition 1 can be represented in $m(\log \sigma + 1.443 + o(1))$ bits of space such that the existence and destination state of a transition can be computed in constant time.

3.3   Representation of failure transitions

We now describe how failure transitions are encoded. Recall that a failure transition connects a state representing a prefix p to the state representing q where q is the longest suffix of p such that $q \in P$ and $q \neq p$. The set of failure transitions can be represented with a tree called the *failure tree*. Each node in the failure tree represents an element of P and each element of P has a corresponding node in the tree. The failure tree is simply defined in the following way:

- The node representing a string p is a descendant of a node representing the string q if and only if $q \neq p$ and q is suffix of p.

- The children of any node are ordered according to the suffix-lexicographic order of the strings they represent.

Now an important observation on the tree we have just described is that a depth first traversal of the tree will enumerate all the elements of P in suffix-lexicographic order. That is the preorder of the nodes in the tree corresponds

to the suffix lexicographic order of the strings of P. It is clear from the above description that finding the failure transition that connects a state $state(p)$ to a state $state(q)$ (where q is the longest element in P such that q is a suffix of p and $q \neq p$) corresponds to finding the parent in the failure tree of the node representing the element q. Using a succinct encoding (lemma 2), the tree can be represented using space $2m + o(m)$ bits such that the parent primitive is supported in constant time. That is the node of the tree corresponding to a state p will have preorder $state(p)$, and the preorder of the parent of that node is $state(q)$. A failure transition is computed in constant time by $state(q) = parent(state(p))$.

Lemma 6 The failure transitions of the Aho-corasick automaton whose states are defined according to definition 1 can be represented in $m(2 + o(1))$ bits of space such that a failure transition can be computed in constant time.

3.4 Representation of report transitions

The encoding of the *report* transitions is similar to that of failure transitions. The only difference with the failure tree is that any non root internal node is required to represent an element of S. We remark that the report transitions form a forest of trees, which can be transformed into a tree by connecting all the roots of the forest as children of state 0. In other words a report tree is the unique tree built on the elements of P which satisfies :

- All the nodes of the tree represent strings of P.

- All the nodes are descendants of the root which represents the empty string.

- The node representing a string p is a descendant of a node representing a non empty string s if and only if $s \in S$, $s \neq p$ and s is a suffix of p.

- All children of a given node are ordered according to the suffix-lexicographic order of the strings they represent.

We could encode the report tree in the same way as the failure tree (using lemma 2) to occupy $m(2 + o(1))$ bits of space. However we can obtain better space usage if we encode the report tree using the compressed tree representation (lemma 3). More specifically, the report tree contains at most d internal nodes as only strings of S can represent internal nodes. This means that the tree contains at least $m - d$ leaves. The entropy of the degree distribution of the report tree is $d(\log(m/d) + O(1))$ bits and the encoding of lemma 3 will use that much space (this can easily be seen by analogy to suffix tree representation in [12] which uses $d(\log((d + t)/d) + O(1))$ bits of space for a suffix tree with d internal nodes and t leaves). Report transitions are supported similarly to failure transitions in constant time using the parent primitive which is also supported in constant time by the compressed tree representation.

Lemma 7 The report transitions of the Aho-corasick automaton whose states are defined according to definition 1 can be represented in $d(\log(m/d) + O(1))$ bits of space such that a report transition can be computed in constant time.

3.5 Occurence representation

Our Aho-corasick automaton will match strings from S which are suffixes of prefixes of the text T. This means that the Aho-corasick automaton will output the end positions of occurrences. However the user might need to also have the start position of occurrences. For that we have chosen to report occurrences as triplets $(occ\_start\_pos, occ\_end\_pos, string\_id)$, where $string \in S$ and occ_start_pos (occ_end_pos) is the start (end) position of the occurrence in the text. For that we need to know the length of the matched strings. But this information is not available as we do not store the original strings of the dictionary in any explicit form. For that purpose, we succinctly store an array storing the dictionary string lengths using the Elias-Fano encoding and call the resulting compressed array, a string length store. As the total length of the strings of the dictionary is n, the total space usage of Elias-Fano encoded array will be $d(\lceil \log(n/d) \rceil + 2)$.

We note that our algorithm outputs string identifiers as numbers from interval $[0, d-1]$ where the identifier of each string corresponds to the rank of the string in the suffix lexicographic order of all strings. If the user has to associate specific action to be applied when a given string is matched, then he may use a table *action* of size d where each cell i stores the value representing the action associated with the string of rank i in suffix lexicographic order. The table could be sorted during the building of the state dictionary.

3.6 Putting things together

Summarizing the space usage of the data structures which are used for representation of the Aho-Corasick automaton:

1. The state dictionary which indicates the final states occupies at most $d(\log(m/d) + 1.443 + o(1)) \leq d(\log(n/d) + 1.443 + o(1))$ bits of space.

2. The *next* transitions representation occupies $B(m, m\sigma) + o(m) \leq m(\log(\sigma) + 1.443 + o(1))$ bits of space.

3. The *failure* transitions representation occupies $m(2 + o(1))$ bits of space.

4. The *report* transitions representation occupies $d(\log(m/d) + O(1)) \leq d(\log(n/d) + O(1))$ bits of space.

5. The string length store occupies $d(\lceil \log(n/d) \rceil + O(1))$ bits of space.

The following lemma summarizes the space usage of our representation:

Lemma 8 The Aho-corasick automaton can be represented in $m(\log \sigma + 3.443 + o(1)) + d(3 \log(n/d) + O(1))$ bits of space.

A more detailed space usage analysis is left to appendix D.

Implicit representation of the dictionary strings We note that the state dictionary and the transition dictionary can be used in combination as an implicit representation of the elements of S.

Lemma 9 For any integer $i \in [0, d-1]$, we can retrieve the string $x \in S$ of rank i (in suffix-lexicographic order) in time $O(|x|)$ by using the transition dictionary and state dictionary.

The proof of the lemma is left to appendix B.

3.7 Queries

Our query procedure essentially simulates the Aho-Corasick automaton operations, taking a constant time for each simulated operation. Thus our query time is within a constant factor of the query time of the original Aho-Corasick.

Lemma 10 The query time of the succinct Aho-Corasick automaton on a text T is $O(|T| + occ)$, where occ is the number of reported occurrences.

Details of the query algorithm are left to appendix C.

3.8 Construction

We now describe the construction algorithm which takes $O(n)$ time . The algorithm is very similar to the one described in [4]. We first write each string s_i of S in reverse order and append a special character $\#$ at the end of each string giving a set R. The character $\#$ is considered as smaller than all characters of original alphabet σ. Then, we build a (generalized) suffix-tree on the set R. This can be done in time $O(n)$ using the algorithm in [7] for example. Each leaf in the suffix tree will store a list of suffixes where a suffix s of a string $x \in R$ is represented by the pair $(string\_pointer, suf\_pos)$, where $string\_pointer$ is a pointer to x and suf_pos is the starting position of s in x. Then we can build the following elements:

1. The transition dictionary can be directly built as the suffix tree will give us the (suffix-lexicographic) order of all elements of P by a DFS traversal (top-down lexicographic traversal).

2. The failure tree is built by a simple DFS traversal of the suffix tree.

3. The report tree is built by doing a DFS traversal of the failure tree.

4. The state dictionary can be built by a traversal of the report tree.

5. The string length store can be built by a simple traversal of the set S.

Details of the construction are left to Appendix F.

Lemma 11 The succinct Aho-corasick automaton representation can be constructed in time $O(n)$.

The results about succinct Aho-Corasick representation are summarized by the following theorem:

Theorem 1 The Aho-corasick automaton for a dictionary of d strings of total length n characters over an alphabet of size σ can be represented in $m(\log \sigma + 3.443 + o(1)) + d(3 \log(n/d) + O(1))$ bits where $m \leq n + 1$ is the number of states in the automaton. A dictionary matching query on a text T using the Aho-corasick representation can be answered in $O(|T| + occ)$ time, where occ is the number of reported strings. The representation can be constructed in $O(n)$ randomized expected time.

4 Compressed representation

The space occupany of theorem 1 can be further reduced to $m(H_0 + 3.443 + o(1)) + d(3 \log(n/d) + O(1))$, where H_0 is the entropy of the characters appearing as labels in the *next* transitions of the Aho-Corasick automaton.

Theorem 2 The Aho-corasick automaton for a set S of d strings of total length n characters over an alphabet of size σ can be represented in $m(H_0 + 3.443 + o(1)) + d(3 \log(n/d) + O(1))$ bits where $m \leq n + 1$ is the number of states in the automaton and H_0 is the entropy of the characters appearing in the trie representation of the set S. The theorem holds provided that $\sigma < m^\varepsilon$ for any constant $0 < \varepsilon < 1$. A dictionary matching query for a text T can be answered in $O(|T| + occ)$ time.

The proof of the theorem is deferred to appendix G.

5 Concluding remarks

Our work gives rise to two open problems: the first one is whether the term $3.443m$ in the space usage of our method which is particularly significant for small alphabets (DNA alphabet for example) can be removed without incurring any slowdown. The second one is whether the query time can be improved to $O(|T| \log \sigma / w + occ)$ (which is the best query time one could hope for).

Acknowledgements

References

[1] A. V. Aho and M. J. Corasick. Efficient string matching: An aid to bibliographic search. *Commun. ACM*, 18(6):333–340, 1975.

[2] H.-L. Chan, W.-K. Hon, T. W. Lam, and K. Sadakane. Dynamic dictionary matching and compressed suffix trees. In *SODA*, pages 13–22, 2005.

[3] D. R. Clark and J. I. Munro. Efficient suffix trees on secondary storage (extended abstract). In *SODA*, pages 383–391, 1996.

[4] S. Dori and G. M. Landau. Construction of aho corasick automaton in linear time for integer alphabets. In *CPM*, pages 168–177, 2005.

[5] P. Elias. Efficient storage and retrieval by content and address of static files. *J. ACM*, 21(2):246–260, 1974.

[6] R. M. Fano. On the number of bits required to implement an associative memory. Memorandum 61, Computer Structures Group, Project MAC, MIT, Cambridge, Mass., n.d., 1971.

[7] M. Farach. Optimal suffix tree construction with large alphabets. In *FOCS*, pages 137–143, 1997.

[8] P. Ferragina and G. Manzini. Opportunistic data structures with applications. In *FOCS*, pages 390–398, 2000.

[9] R. Grossi and J. S. Vitter. Compressed suffix arrays and suffix trees with applications to text indexing and string matching (extended abstract). In *STOC*, pages 397–406, 2000.

[10] W.-K. Hon, T. W. Lam, R. Shah, S.-L. Tam, and J. S. Vitter. Compressed index for dictionary matching. In *DCC*, pages 23–32, 2008.

[11] W.-K. Hon, T. W. Lam, R. Shah, S.-L. Tam, and J. S. Vitter. Succinct index for dynamic dictionary matching. In *ISAAC*, 2009.

[12] J. Jansson, K. Sadakane, and W.-K. Sung. Ultra-succinct representation of ordered trees. In *SODA*, pages 575–584, 2007.

[13] J. I. Munro and V. Raman. Succinct representation of balanced parentheses and static trees. *SIAM J. Comput.*, 31(3):762–776, 2001.

[14] R. Raman, V. Raman, and S. S. Rao. Succinct indexable dictionaries with applications to encoding k-ary trees and multisets. In *SODA*, pages 233–242, 2002.

[15] K. Sadakane. Compressed text databases with efficient query algorithms based on the compressed suffix array. In *ISAAC*, pages 410–421, 2000.

[16] A. Tam, E. Wu, T. W. Lam, and S.-M. Yiu. Succinct text indexing with wildcards. In *SPIRE*, pages 39–50, 2009.

A   Original Aho-Corasick automaton

We recall the original Aho-Corasick automaton. The variant described here may slightly differ from other ones for the reason that this variant is simpler to adapt to our case. In particular the strings of S are implicitly represented by the automaton and are never represented explicitly.

In the Aho-Corasick automaton, we have m states with three kinds of transitions: $next$, $fail$ and $report$ transitions. We define the set P as the set of all prefixes of the strings of the set S, including the empty string and all the strings of S. For each element of P, we have one corresponding state in the automaton and vice-versa. We thus have $|P| = m \le n + 1$ states in the automaton. The states that correspond to strings in S are called terminal states. We now define the three kinds of transitions:

- For each state v_p corresponding to a prefix p, we have a transition $next(v_p, c)$ labeled with character c from the state v_p to each state v_{pv} corresponding to a prefix pc for each prefix $pc \in P$. Hence we may have up to σ $next$ transitions per state.

- For each state v_p we have a failure transition which connects v_p to the state v_q corresponding to the longest suffix $q \in P$ of p such that $p \ne q$.

- Additionally , for each state v_p, we may have a $report$ transition from the state v_p to the state corresponding to the longest suffix q of p such that $q \in S$ and $p \ne q$ if such q exists. If for a given state v_p no such string exists, then we do not have a report transition from the state v_p.

Figure 1 shows an example of an Aho-Corasick automaton with the three kinds of transitions.

We now turn out to the algorithm which recognizes the patterns of S included in a text T using the Aho-Corasick automaton. The algorithm works in the following way: initially, before scanning the text the automaton is at the state $zero$ which corresponds to the empty string. Then at each step:

- We first check if the string corresponding to the current state (which we note by $state_{cur}$) has any element of S as a suffix. If this is the case we enumerate those elements in their decreasing length. This works in the following way: if $state_{cur}$ is a terminal state, then we report the string corresponding to $state_{cur}$ as a matching one. If the state has a $report$ transition, then we skip to the state corresponding to that transition (note that this state is necessarily a terminal state) and report the string corresponding to that state as a matching string. If that state has also a $report$ transition, we continue recursively following $report$ transitions and report the strings corresponding to the traversed states until we reach a state that has no report transition.

- We read the next character c from the text. Then we determine the next state to skip to. To that effect, we first check if there exists a $next$

12

transition from $state_{cur}$ labeled with the character c. If this is the case, follow that transition and go to the state indicated by the transition. Otherwise, we have to follow the *fail* transition and do the same thing recursively (check whether there exists a *next* transition from that new state labeled with character c, etc...). If at some point we reach the state *zero* corresponding to the empty string and fail to find a next transition from it labeled with c, we stay in state *zero*.
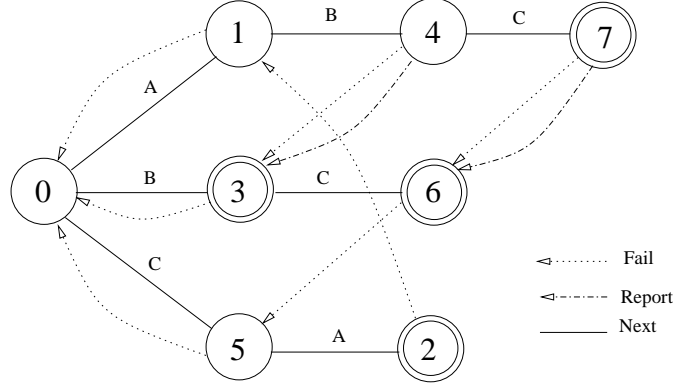

Figure 1: The Aho-Corasick automaton for the set {"ABC","B","BC","CA"}

B   Proof of lemma 9

Retrieving the pattern x of S of rank i (in suffix lexicographic order) can be done in the following way: we first do a *select(i)* on the state dictionary giving a number j_0. Then by doing a *select(j_0)* on the transition dictionary we obtain a pair (c_1, j_1). The character c_1 is in fact the last character of the string we are looking for. Then we do a *select(j_1)* obtaining a pair (c_2, j_2) where c_2 is the second-to-last character and we continue that way until we obtain a pair $(c_{|x|}, 0)$, where $c_{|x|}$ is the first character of the string x.
The justification for this is that a *select(i)* will give us j_0, the rank of the string in x in suffix lexicographic order, relatively to the set P. In other words j_0 is the terminal state corresponding to the string x. Then by doing a *select(j_0)* we will obtain a pair (c_1, j_1), where j_1 is the state corresponding to y the prefix of x of length $|x|-1$. The necessarily c_1 is the last character of x, because the pair (c_1, j_1) corresponds to the transition which lead to the state corresponding to x. Continuing that way recursively doing *select* queries with the states returned by preceding *select* queries, we will report all characters of x in right-to-left order.

C   Query algorithm

We now present the full picture of the queries. The text T is scanned from left to right. We use a variable named *state* which is initialized to zero, a temporary variable called *tmp_state*, a variable *dict_string_idx* which stores the index of the reported string, a variable called *dict_string_length* and finally a variable *step* which stores the current step number (initially set to zero). At each step we do the following actions:

1. Read the character $c = T[step]$ and increment variable *step*: $step = step + 1$.

2. Check the existence of a transition from the state *state* labeled with character c. For that we probe the transition dictionary for the pair $(c, state)$ by doing a $tmp\_state = rank((c, state))$ where rank is applied on the transition dictionary. Then if we have $tmp\_state \neq -1$, we set $state = tmp\_state$ and go to step 3. Otherwise we conclude that there exists no transition from the state *state* labeled with character c. If $state = 0$, this step is finished without matching any string of S. Otherwise if $step \neq 0$, we go to step 3 in order to do a failure transition.

3. Find the destination state of the failure transition from the state *state*. This corresponds to doing a parent operation on the succinctly encoded failure tree, which takes a constant time. We set the variable *state* to the destination state and return to step 2.

4. We first set the variable $tmp\_state = state$. Then check if the current state matches any string in the dictionary. For that we check whether *state* is stored in the state dictionary. If this is the case we go to step 6, otherwise we go to step 5.

5. We do a parent operation on the report tree for *tmp_state* and store the returned state in variable *tmp_state*. If $tmp\_state = 0$, we conclude that there exists no report transition from state $tmp\_state = state$ and thus return to step 1 in order to process the next character in the text.

6. We have now to report the string corresponding to state *tmp_state* as a matching string. For that, we first do a $dict\_string\_idx = rank(tmp\_state)$ where *rank* operation is applied on the state dictionary. This operation returns a unique number corresponding to one of the strings of S. Then we retrieve the length of the string number *dict_string_idx* from the dictionary string lengths store and store it in the variable *dict_string_length*. We finally report the occurrence as the triplet $(occ\_start\_pos, occ\_end\_pos, string\_id) = (step - dict\_string\_length, step - 1, dict\_string\_idx)$. At the end of the step we return to step 5.

σ (alphabet size)	Space usage	Space optimality ratio
2	$n(4 + o(1))$	4
4	$n(5.246 + o(1))$	2.623
16	$n(7.397 + o(1))$	1.849
256	$n(11.440 + o(1))$	1.43
Superconstant	$n(\log \sigma + 3.443 + o(1))$	1

Table 2: Space optimality ratio for different alphabet sizes

D   Detailed space analysis

If we compare $m(\log \sigma + 3.443 + o(1)) + d(3 \log(n/d) + O(1))$, the space usage of our data structure with the lower bound $n \log \sigma$, which represents the total size of the patterns, then we can see the following facts :

- The $B(m, m\sigma) + o(m)$ term is slightly smaller for small values of σ. For example, for $\sigma = 2$, it equals $m(2 + o(1)) = m(\log(\sigma) + 1) + o(m)$.

- The cn term can be simplified to $o(n \log \sigma)$ for non constant σ.

- We have $d(3 \log(n/d) + O(1)) = o(n \log \sigma)$ for any value of σ. This can easily be seen: we have d strings of total length $n \log \sigma$. The average length of the strings must be at least $(\log n)$ bits (otherwise the strings will not be all distinct). The space usage is maximized when the ratio d/n is maximal. This happens at the point $n \log \sigma = d \log n$, where we have $d(3 \log(n/d) + O(1)) = d(3 \log \log n + O(1)) = (n \log \sigma)((3 \log \log n + O(1))/\log n) = o(n \log \sigma)$.

The space usage for different values of σ is summarized in table 2, where the space optimality ratio refers to the ratio between actual space usage and the optimal $n \log \sigma$ bits of space.

E   A full example

Let's now take as example the set $S = \{"ABC", "B", "BC", "CA"\}$. The example is illustrated in figures 1 and 2. The set P of prefixes of S sorted in suffix-lexicographic order gives the sequence: $"\ "$, $"A"$, $"CA"$, $"B"$, $"AB"$, $"C"$, $"BC"$, $"ABC"$. The first prefix (the empty string) in the sequence corresponds to state 0 and the last one corresponds to state 7. For this example, we store the following elements:

- The transition dictionary stores the following pairs: $(A, 0), (A, 5), (B, 0), (B, 1), (C, 0), (C, 3), (C, 4)$.

- The state dictionary stores the states $2, 3, 6, 7$ which correspond to the final states of the automaton (states corresponding to the strings of S).

- The report and failure trees are depicted in figure 2.

- The string length store, stores the sequence $2, 1, 2, 3$ which correspond to the lengths of the strings of S sorted in suffix lexicographic order ($"CA", "B", "BC", "ABC"$).
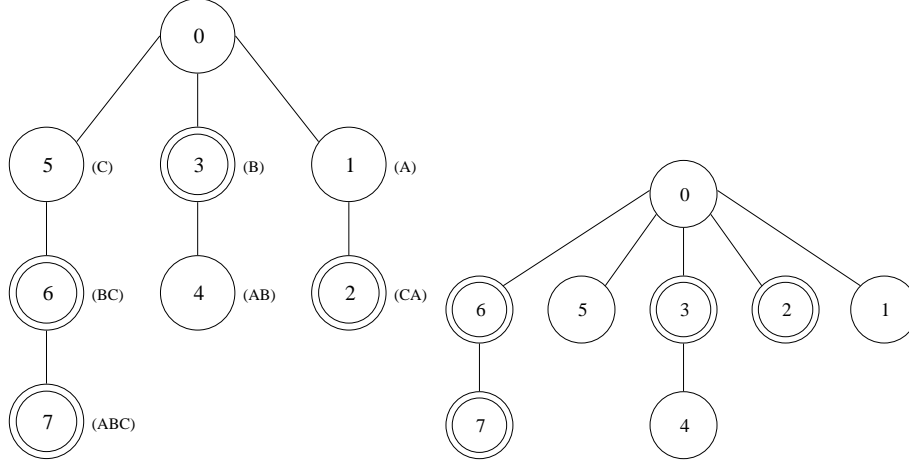

Figure 2: Failure and report trees for the set {"ABC","B","BC","CA"}

F   Construction algorithm

We now describe more in detail how each component of our representation is built:

Construction of the transition dictionary   The transition dictionary can be constructed by a simple DFS traversal of the suffix tree. Essentially each leaf of the suffix tree represents one or more suffixes of strings in R (there could be multiple identical suffixes) which correspond to prefixes of strings in S (recall that R contains the strings of S written in reverse order). The transition dictionary is then built in the following way: for each leaf of rank i, we have a list of suffixes of strings in R. Each suffix is represented by a pair $(string\_pointer, \text{suf\_pos})$. Thus for each suffix to which corresponds a pair $(string\_pointer, \text{suf\_pos})$, we add to the dictionary the pair (c, i) where $c = string\_pointer[\text{suf\_pos} - 1]$ at the condition that suf_pos ≥ 1 (the suffix does not represent an element of R). In other words for each prefix p of an element $x \in S$ such that $p \neq x$, c is the successor of p in x.

Then we can sort the pairs using radix sort (and remove duplicates) which takes $O(n)$ time (recall that we have assumed that $\sigma \leq n$) and finally build the succinct indexable dictionary of [14] on the sorted output.

Building of the failure tree For building the failure tree, we do a DFS traversal of the suffix tree and transform it progressively. When traversing a node t having a parent r (in the special case where t is root we simply recursively traverse all of its children in lexicographic order), we check if the first child of t (we note that child by f) is labeled with character $\#$ (which means that the child f is a leaf representing a string of P which is a suffix of all strings representing all other descendants of node n). If this is the case, we eliminate the child f. If the child f is not labeled with $\#$, we eliminate the node t and attach all its children in their original order in the list of children of node r (recall that r is the parent of node t) at the position where the node t was attached (between the left sibling and right sibling of node t). Then we recursively process all the children of t in lexicographic order (including the child f).

Building of the report tree The report tree can be built from the failure tree by flattening progressively the tree in a top-down traversal. More precisely, we traverse the failure tree in DFS order. Each time we encounter a node n corresponding to a string p, we first check whether $p \in S$ (this can easily be done by checking whether the list of pairs associated with n contains a single pair $(string\_pointer, suf\_pos)$ with $position = 0$). If it is the case, we keep it and recursively traverse all of its children. Otherwise $(p \notin S)$, we attach all the children of n as children of the parent of n in the same order at the position where the node n was attached (between right and left siblings of n) and continue to scan the children of n recursively doing the same thing.

Building of the state dictionary The state dictionary can also be built in linear time. For that we can simply do a DFS traversal of the report tree during which a counter initialized at zero is incremented each time we encounter a node. Each time we encounter an internal node, we put the counter value in a temporary dictionary (the value of the counter before traversing a given node is exactly the value of the state corresponding to that node). This first step takes linear time. Building the compressed representation of [14] on the array also takes randomized expected linear time.

Building of the string length store The string length store can trivially be built in $O(n)$ time. For that we traverse the strings of S in suffix lexicographic order and store the length of each string in a temporary array. Then, we can encode the temporary array using Elias-Fano encoding.

G   Compressed representation

We now give a proof of theorem 2. The space usage of the transition dictionary can be reduced from $m(\log \sigma + 1.443 + o(1))$ to $m(H_0 + 1.443 + o(1))$, where H_0 is the entropy of the characters appearing in the trie representation of the set S (or equivalently the characters appearing in the *next* transitions of the automaton). For that we will use σ indexable dictionaries instead of a single

one. Each dictionary corresponds to one of the characters of the alphabet. That is a pair $(c, state)$ will be stored in the dictionary corresponding to character c (we note that dictionary by $I[c]$). Additionally we store a table $T[0..\sigma-1]$. For each character c we set $T[c]$ to the rank of character c (in suffix-lexicographic order) relatively to the set P (that is the number of strings in the set P which are smaller than the string $''c''$ in the suffix lexicographic order). Let Y be the set of pairs to be stored in the transition dictionary. The indexable dictionary $I[c]$ will store all values $state_i$ such that $(c, state_i) \in Y$. Thus the number of elements stored in $I[c]$ is equal to the number of $next$ transitions labeled with character c.

Now the target state for a transition pair $(c, state)$ is obtained by $T[c] + rank_{I[c]}(state)$, where $rank_{I[c]}(state)$ is the rank operation applied on the dictionary $I[c]$ for the value $state$. Let's now analyze the total space used by the table T and by the indexable dictionaries. The space usage of table T is $\sigma \log m \leq m^\varepsilon \log m = o(m)$. An indexable dictionary $I[c]$ will use at most $t_c(\log(m/t_c) + 1.443 + o(1))$ bits , where t_c is the number of transitions labeled with character c. Thus the total space used by all indexable dictionaries is $\sum_{0 \leq c < \sigma} t_c(\log(m/t_c) + 1.443 + o(1)) = m(H_0 + 1.443 + o(1))$. Thus the total space used by the table T and the indexable dictionaries is $m(H_0 + 1.443 + o(1))$.